DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 240 042 SO 015 420

TITLE The Japanese American Internment, 1942-45: A Lesson from Recent History. Multicultural Education Resource Series.

INSTITUTION Washington Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia. Office for Equity Education.

PUB DATE Oct 83

NOTE 51p.; Prepared by the Japanese American Internment Instructional Unit Committee and the National Pacific/Asian Resource Center on Aging. Unit materials provided by the University of Washington's Asian American Studies Program. Photographs and some small type material may not reproduce clearly.

PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS Controversial Issues (Course Content); Instructional Materials; Japanese American Culture; *Japanese Americans; Learning Activities; *Legal Education; Secondary Education; *Social Discrimination; Social Studies; *United States History; Units of Study

IDENTIFIERS *Internment Camps; *World War II

ABSTRACT

Designed for secondary school students, this 3-5 day unit focuses on the legal context of the Japanese-American internment during World War II and can be incorporated into a history unit or used as a case study of the American legal system or American race relations. Four lesson plans are provided. In lesson 1, the historical events of the internment, students discuss headlines and evacuation instructions. In lesson 2, students read a case study of a U.S. Supreme Court case concerned with the internment, and explore the balance between government war powers and individual civil rights. In lesson 3, life in the internment camps is described in first-hand accounts. A final lesson analyzes government accountability for the internment. A list of supplementary resources concludes the unit. (LP)

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Office For Equity Education's Multicultural Education Resource Series

THE JAPANESE AMERICAN INTERNMENT, 1942-45
A LESSON FROM RECENT HISTORY

SP 015 430

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Printed August, 1983

Reprinted October, 1983

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INTRODUCTION

A major event in the history of the United States was the internment of over 110,000 American citizens during World War II. Perhaps for obvious reasons, it is omitted from or treated very briefly in American school textbooks. Yet, it was a very traumatic event for over 110,000 Japanese Americans who experienced the internment. For them, three to four years of their lives were stripped away, along with their property, possessions and their future.

Some Americans felt it was a stain on the record of a nation which proclaims it is a nation of laws. Others felt it was a necessary act because the United States was at war and the leaders believed the nation needed to protect itself even at the expense of a group of its own citizens.

In either case, the dramatic events that led to its occurrence and the act itself requires examination and discussion because of the dilemma it poses for a democratic government. There are two questions paramount in the study of this event: (1) Was the U.S. government correct in interning over 110,000 Japanese Americans? (2) Can it happen again?

This instructional unit attempts to have the students look at the Japanese American internment in a legal context. It focuses on one aspect only and therefore does not attempt to provide an all-inclusive, exhaustive look at the internment. For that reason, several aspects of the entire internment event are not included.

Special thanks to the University of Washington's Asian American Studies Program for their generosity in providing informational materials for the development of this unit.

HOW TO USE THE INSTRUCTIONAL UNIT

This is a three-to-five day instructional unit on the study of the Japanese American internment during World War II. The unit examines this historical episode from primarily a legal (or constitutional) perspective. For this reason, the unit can be used as (a) a historical unit part of WWII, or, (b) a case study involving constitutional law or the working of the American legal system, or, (c) a study in American race relations.

The objectives of this learning unit are:

1. To inform the students that there were many causes and events leading to the internment of over 110,000 Japanese Americans during WWII.

2. To have the students examine the U.S. Government's justification and/or legitimization of its internment of over 110,000 Japanese American citizens.

3. To make the students aware that the internment disrupted the lives of the interned Japanese Americans, that camp life was filled with hardship, and, after the war, that it was difficult for them to return to normal life.

4. To have the students examine the question of government accountability when it has acted in error against its citizens.

The unit contains four lesson plans with accompanying handouts and readings. The teacher is encouraged to review the entire unit before using it. Upon completion of the review, the teacher can elect to use the unit as a whole or in part. The handouts and readings should be duplicated before the unit is introduced to ensure availability of all materials as the students go through the various exercises.

The teacher is also encouraged to prepare for questions that cannot be answered from the materials contained in this unit by doing some background reading on the Japanese American internment (see bibliography, page 37).

SUGGESTED QUESTIONS WHICH CAN BE PURSUED BY THE STUDENTS

1. In Hawaii, the Japanese Americans were not interned. Why weren't they?
2. Why did the Japanese Americans remain loyal to the United States in spite of their internment?
3. How did the Japanese Americans adapt for the internment? What did they do to make life tolerable in the camps?
4. Why weren't civil rights laws enforced in order to protect the Japanese American citizens from being interned?

"9066"

by James G. Trager

A few days after that "day of infamy" at Pearl Harbor, Lt. General John L. DeWitt, CO of the Fourth Army Western Area Command, spoke for millions of outraged Americans. "A Jap is a Jap. It makes no difference whether the Jap is a citizen or not...."

And so it was, earlier this year, when the newspapers and TV in recent months showed Americans savaging Iranian students and businessmen—many of them U.S. citizens—some of us couldn't help but think back to the time, nearly 40 years ago, when a similar ugliness befell the more than 120,000 Japanese-Americans on the West Coast. Perhaps having a Japanese wife makes me especially sensitive to an analogy between these isolated incidents and what the American Civil Liberties Union in 1942 called "the worst single wholesale violation of civil rights in our history."

This time there is no racial motivation, no hysteria about "fifth columnists," no thought that the Ayatollah plans to bomb the U.S. mainland. Despite the gradual escalation of U.S. responses to Iran's seizure of American hostages, including the move by the Immigration & Naturalization Service to get Iranian students to prove their status, there is no suggestion that the outbreaks against some of the 200,000 Iranians were in any way sanctioned by the White House. Still, the common thread of revenge, of lynch mob psychology or scapegoating is there to be seen.

Finding historical precedents for current outrages can be treacherous. It would be easy to exaggerate the common denominators between the signing of Executive Order 9066 by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on February 19, 1942 and the burning of a Dallas clothing store, the assaults on college campuses and all the "Iranians Keep Out" signs that grace storefronts and restaurants across the country.

The essential difference is that "9066" was not just a mindless act of patriotism but a calculated presidential policy decision—a decision arrived at after much deliberation by the executive and legislative branches of government, and then given the blessings of the judicial. The decision had nothing to do with any "clear and present danger" and almost everything to do with the basest of racial prejudice and economic greed. Before Pearl Harbor, as an innocent American read about the wretched excesses of the Nazis—including their promulgation of the Nuremberg Racial Laws turning Jews into non-persons, followed by the Nazi expropriation of Jewish property and the expulsion of its owners—people insisted "it can't happen here."

After Pearl Harbor, it almost did.

Executive Order 9066, lest we forget, rustled up 120,000 Japanese-Americans and herded them into "relocation centers" in some of the most barren, Godforsaken parts of California, Idaho, Utah, Oregon, Washington, Colorado, Arizona, Wyoming and Arkansas. Fairgrounds, livestock exhibition halls and race tracks were converted into virtual concentration camps, surrounded by barbed wire fences protected by rifle-wielding guards in watch-towers. Many of the living quarters were horse stalls, some complete with manure. While most camps held 5,000 detainees, the converted Santa Ana race track near Los Angeles held over 18,000 Japanese-Americans. Out of the 120,000 detainees in all camps, about one-half were under the age of 21, approximately one-quarter were young children and many were the elderly. Not one was tried for any crime, but nearly all lost their homes, jobs, businesses and farms.

The facts behind that mass evacuation of Japanese-Americans from their West Coast homes—the inconsistencies, the ironies, the naked racial bias—boggle the mind. Taken together, they are a reminder of the excesses that even this democratic society is capable of sanctioning in wartime.

Nearly two-thirds of the internees were *Nisei*, native-born American citizens many of whom were young children and infants. The others were, for the most part, elderly *Issei*, immigrants who, in countless cases, lost everything they had worked for and saved over many years.

James G. Trager is author of the recent bestseller, The People's Chronology. *He has also written* Amber Waves of Grain, *a 1973 expose of the U.S.-Soviet secret wheat deal which contributed to the current American food price spiral. Trager is married to the photographer Chie Nishio, a Japanese national.*

Source: Perspectives, The Civil Rights Quarterly, Vol. 12, No. 2, Summer, 1980, pp. 9-15

Japanese living in the Hawaiian Islands, often in close proximity to naval bases and air stations, were not interned. They were nearly 2,100 miles west of San Francisco and less than 3,400 miles east of Yokohama, but they were too important to the local economy and to the U.S. military effort for any action to be taken against them. And, unlike California, Hawaii was not in the throes of a gubernatorial election.

No German or Italian aliens, certainly no Americans of German or Italian descent, were interned except in the cases of diplomats and clearly identified enemy agents. Not having the telltale epicanthic fold—"slant eyes"—they enjoyed virtual immunity. "When we are dealing with the Caucasian race," intoned California's Attorney General and gubernatorial aspirant Earl Warren, "we have methods that will test [their] loyalty." But for Americans of even 1/32nd percentile Japanese ancestry—that would be ancestry traceable to one's great, great, great grandparent—government oversight was required. The old "Yellow Peril" talk again proved to be as good for votes and newspaper sales as it had been in the earlier part of the century, when the Chinese "coolies" faced such laws as a San Francisco ordinance that taxed pigtails.

But after 1941, the wartime climate triggered an epidemic of suspicion that sharpened any pre-existing animosities.

"Rumors about Japanese fields of flowers and vegetables planted 'arrowlike' pointing to nearby military installations reverberated through California and beyond."

The recent Steven Spielberg film, *1941*, may not have achieved the comic heights intended, but it documents accurately enough the climate of fear prevalent in wartime America. After a stray Japanese submarine lobbed a few shells into an oil-field near Santa Barbara on February 23, 1942, Californians grew increasingly fearful that a Japanese combined sea-air attack of their coastal cities was imminent. San Franciscans learned to respond quickly to frequent air-raid siren alerts and black-outs. The only Japanese aircraft to appear over United States territory, however, didn't show until November, and then only up north in Oregon. It turned out to be a submarine-launched, pontoon-equipped Zero piloted by Flying Officer Nobuo Fujita of the Imperial Japanese Navy. Fujita flew two sorties over a tinder-dry forest but his incendiary bombs failed to trigger the intended fire storm.

The absence of an invasion by the People of the Rising Sun was apparently troubling to politicians. Worse, despite all the circulating rumors, there was no sabotage. Americans everywhere held their breath—and nothing happened. This silence aggravated chauvinistic worries captured in Earl Warren's frettings on the campaign trail: "...this is the most ominous sign of the whole situation. It convinces me more than perhaps any other factor that the sabotage we are to get, the fifth column activities, are timed just [as] Pearl Harbor was timed and just like the invasion of France, and of Denmark, and of Norway, and all of those other countries [sic]."

The *Nation* in its March 7, 1942 issue found the West Coast "more jittery" than the rest of the country. "Rich folk are leaving San Francisco, Seattle and other places for the safety of inland Arizona and Nevada," reported Louis Fischer. "Most people I have encountered this month in California, Oregon and Washington believe they will be severely bombed...this intensifies the manhunt on Japanese-born and American-born Japanese who, it is alleged, might try to capture cities, shipyards and plants during the raids. I talked to women who were honestly afraid that Japanese truck growers would poison their vegetables."

It's fair to point out that during this period a few political leaders came to the defense of the victims. One of them, Governor Ralph Carr of Colorado, offered to accept citizens of Japanese descent and guard their constitutional rights. But such voices of reason could not stem the growing tide of hysteria sweeping the nation. Rumors about Japanese fields of flowers and vegetables planted "arrowlike" pointing to nearby military installations reverberated through California and beyond.

As a teenager making his first visit to California in the

summer of 1941, I heard people lower their voices when their Japanese gardeners came within earshot. Some "Japs," they told me, had been seen photographing military installations. Or was it naval installations? Or the approaches to the then four-year old Golden Gate Bridge? The year before, on a trip to Virginia, I'd felt a physical revulsion at the sight of restrooms, drinking fountains and public benches labeled "White Only" or "Colored." But after Pearl Harbor, my view of the Japanese was peculiarly altered by the stereotypes that films, comic strips and magazine illustrations had created. I'd read about Warsaw, Rotterdam and London, but the Nazis looked not unlike most Americans. "Japs" were something else—sneaky, unpredictable, fanatical, bestial and racially alien. (Who hadn't heard about the December, 1937 "Rape of Nanking"?) What was it that Mississippi Congressman John E. Rankin had said? "Once a Jap, always a Jap. You cannot regenerate a Jap, convert him and make him the same as a white man any more than you can reverse the laws of nature."

The fever was contagious. Even the wise Walter Lippmann, ardent champion of civil rights, fell victim. In his nationally syndicated column he declared the Pacific Coast "an official combat zone." And no one, certainly not the Japanese working there, had "a constitutional right to do business on a battlefield." There was plenty of room for them on less threatened terrain elsewhere in the U.S.

Some of Mr. Lippmann's brethren were more vicious. The Los Angeles *Times* editorialized: "A viper is nonetheless a viper wherever the egg is hatched, so a Japanese-American, born of Japanese parents, grows up to be Japanese, not American." Westbrook Pegler chimed in by writing, "to hell with *habeas corpus* until the danger is over."

Maintaining his equilibrium, *The Nation's* Louis Fischer found press and politicians to be "out for blood and wholesale internment. Jingoes are endeavoring, under the cover of wartime, flag-waving patriotism, to do what they always wanted to do in peacetime: get rid of the Japanese, harness labor and frighten the liberals. Cheap demagogues," he concluded, "are having a field day."

Nearly 30 years later, however, FDR's biographer James MacGregor Burns would write that "only a strong civil libertarian president could have faced [the chauvinists] down, and Roosevelt was not a strong civil libertarian. Like Jefferson, he was all for civil liberties in general but easily found exceptions in particular."

But racial suspicion and political opportunism were not the sole motives for internment. There were economic advantages in removing the American Japanese from their property. These Japanese were the children and grandchildren of a people who had revolutionized California's fishing

industry; who taught California's farmers how to develop good potato seed—making California, not Idaho or Maine, the nation's largest potato producer; who pioneered in land reclamation; who organized produce-growing to provide for a steady year-round flow to Eastern markets. Thus, by the end of 1941, Japanese-American farmers controlled 42% of the commercial truck crops grown in California—22% of the nation's total. They tilled only 3.9% of the state's farmland, but as much as 90% of California's artichokes, cauliflower, celery, cucumber, peppers, spinach, strawberries and tomatoes were Japanese-American grown.

Little wonder that members of the Western Growers Protective Association coveted those truck farms, especially if they could be picked up for virtually nothing at eviction sales. Others, notably the patriots of the Native Sons of the Golden West hungrily eyed all those other products of the legendary Japanese work ethic: the urban neighborhood fruit stands, grocery stores, florist shops, restaurants, and drycleaning establishments. As Carey McWilliams explained in the March 2, 1942 *New Republic*, "People are prone to forget, in a moment of excitement, that special-interest groups have axes to grind against the Japanese." Not only had White American nursery men already organized a boycott of Japanese firms, reported McWilliams, but now there was a proposal that "all Japanese be moved out of the coastal areas...and put to work on a semi-conscription basis as farm laborers in the San Joaquin Valley at reasonable wages."

As it turned out, that was one of the more benign proposals; more prevalent were calls to "deport" the Japanese and to "expropriate" their lands outright. In late 1941, spokesmen for the Grower-Shipper Vegetable Association traveled to Washington to assure Congress that "no vegetable shortage" would result from such a seizure. Many of those calling for mass deportation back to Japan eventually realized the impracticality of their scheme and settled instead for "incarceration." But even then they worried that "because Japs multiply like rabbits" the camps would become "breeding farms." Why not, suggested one California congressman, offer them a choice of "sterilization or deportation"?

Many internees did wind up working as voluntary field hands and were credited with saving the 1942 sugar beet crops in Utah, Idaho, Montana and Wyoming as well as Arizona's cotton crop. But no sooner were they locked up than agitation began to build against their eventual return to California from inland concentration camps.

Twenty-four years later, former U.S. Supreme Court Justice Tom Clark rued the day that he, as Assistant Attorney-General under Francis Biddle, had successfully argued the case before the Court. On his retirement in 1966 he said, "I have made a lot of mistakes in my life. One was my part in the evacuation of 1942. I don't think that served any purpose at all. We picked them up and put them in concentration camps. That's the truth of the matter. And as I look back on it...I am amazed that the Supreme Court ever approved it."

It was Earl Warren, the same Earl Warren who would one day occupy a lofty place in the pantheon of American civil rights heroes because of *Brown* v. *Board of Education*, who convinced Clark that nobody could determine which of California's 94,000 or so Japanese—60,000 of them U.S. citizens—could be trusted. Clark had been dispatched to Sacramento by Biddle to persuade California officials that a full-scale evacuation could not be legally justified. But when he got there, Earl Warren managed to convince him otherwise. In his memoirs, Biddle would later regret: "It was un-American, unconstitutional and un-Christian."

The irony was that all the evidence gathered by a secret FDR-appointed intelligence mission argued against evacuation. "There is no Japanese problem," reported Curtis B. Munson of the State Department. West Coast and Hawaiian residents of Japanese descent were "extraordinary" in their loyalty to the U.S. *The Nisei*, especially, were "pathetically eager to show [their] loyalty."

Yet, by May 1942, most Japanese-Americans and their extended families had been herded into 15 assembly centers prior to being sent to the squalor of tar-paper barracks in some of the bleakest spots of the far West. They were yanked out of the lushest part of California to live in 20' x 100' "family-sized apartments" and "bachelor wards," while temperatures outside plunged to minus-30 F. and sandstorms and blizzards ripped through the pine boards.

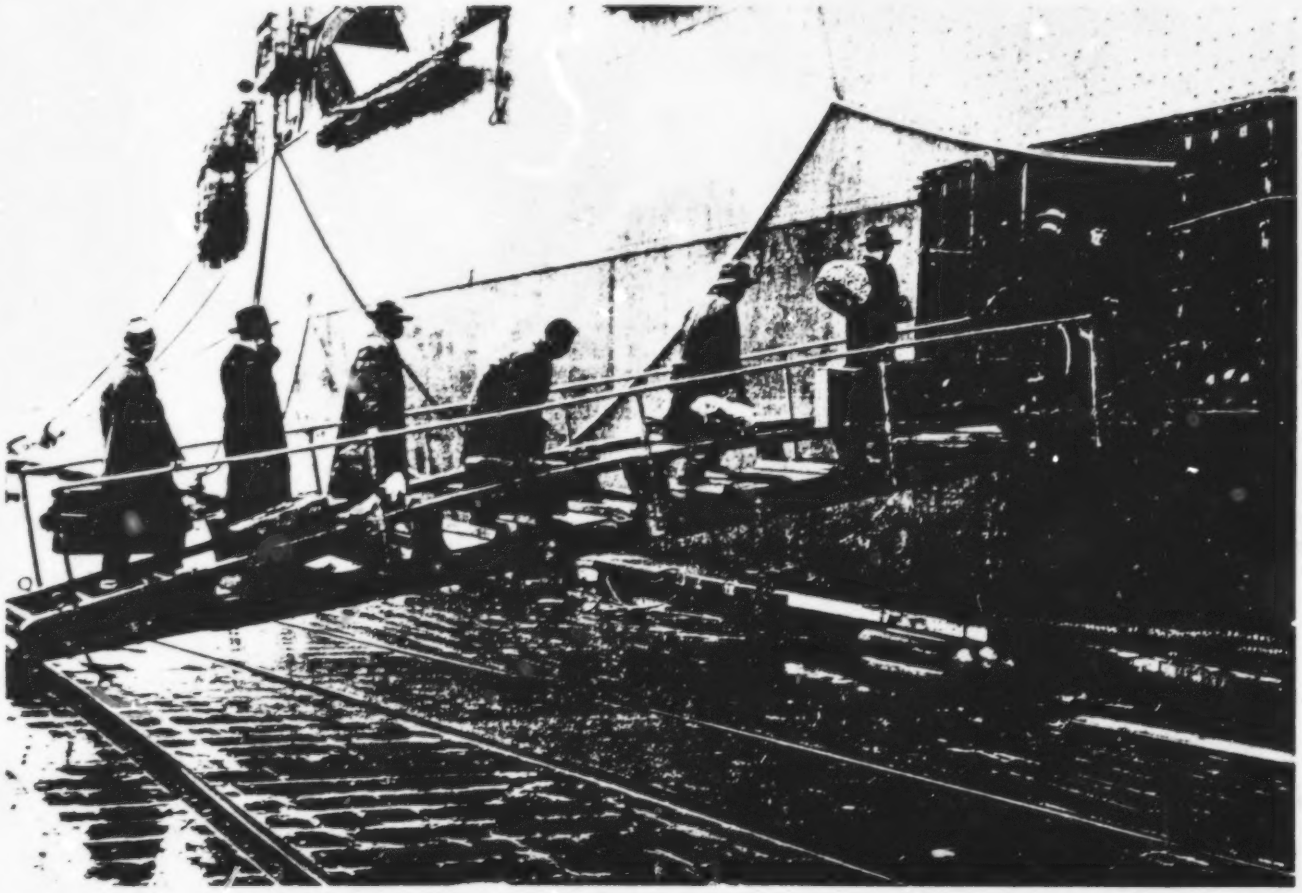
"We picked them up and put them in concentration camps....As I look back on it...I am amazed that the Supreme Court ever approved it."

Today I find it hard to believe that as a nation we could have been so callous, so obtuse. At the time, of course, like so many other fervently patriotic Americans, I found this mass evacuation to be the most natural thing in the world.

Ida Shimonuchi, who in the 1970s taught literature to two of my children in Riverdale, N.Y., was a high-school girl at that time in San Francisco. She remembers being herded with thousands of others into the Tanforan Racetrack on April 28, 1942.

"People made the best of it. Some put signs over their quarters reading, 'Home of Sea Biscuit' or 'War Admiral'—the famous race horses of the late 1930s—but the food was awful and the situation full of uncertainties till they sent us to the camp at Topaz, Utah. That looked good after the assembly center. The living conditions were spartan, and one old man was killed by a guard. That caused quite a stir. He was a bachelor, hard of hearing. He'd wandered out towards the sagebrush with his dog and didn't hear the order to halt. But I never heard any rancor, nor bitterness, of any kind. I guess young people who were engaged to Caucasians, or whose personal lives were disrupted in other traumatic ways, must have been less philosophical, but for most there was a kind of *c'est la vie* attitude."

Another Japanese-American, John Tanaka, now a New York advertising agency art director, was only seven when his family was shipped off to Poston, Arizona, where the



first camp was opened. He remembers that the food was bad but has happy recollections of swimming in the irrigation canal. His four older brothers served in the U.S. Army, two of them leaving Poston to join the all-*Nisei* 442nd Infantry Battalion which emerged from the Italian and French fighting with more decorations—and more casualties—than any other unit of comparable size and length of service in Army history. It should be stressed that the Japanese Americans suffered not only voluntary internment but enlisted in the army in order to prove their loyalty as citizens. (More than 30,000 Japanese-Americans served in the armed forces during World War II, some with Merrill's Marauders in Burma. The mortality rate was fearful, the 442d alone sustaining 9,486 casualties.) And yet, the fear and bigotry directed against Japanese-Americans back home continued unabated. In 1945, the American Legion Post of Hood River, Oregon, managed to have the names of all the local *Niseis*, including those followed by a gold star, removed from the town's Honor Roll.

The Tanakas were fortunate; they had managed to rent their house in Santa Ana rather than sell it, and so were able to return there before V-J Day. Those with no houses to reclaim had to remain in the barracks as late as March, 1946.

For most, the internment camps must have been a nightmare: public toilets without partitions or doors; cold showers instead of the hot tubs that are so much a part of Japanese culture; unpalatable food; the humiliation of being treated like cattle. And this is to say nothing of blighted careers, ruined businesses, the loss of possessions left behind in supposed safekeeping but later looted by rapacious neighbors. Staggering financial losses, in fact, forced some 8,000 to return to Japan penniless in the ten months after V-J Day.

If the displaced persons of Europe caught up in the wake of World War II had counterparts in America, they were the survivors of Manzanar and Tule Lake, California; of Gila River and Poston, Arizona; of Heart Mountain, Wyoming and Minidoka, Idaho; of Topaz, Utah, Granada, Colorado and Jerome, Arkansas. But there were also lesser known detention centers—Fort Lincoln, North Dakota; Crystal City, Texas; Lordsburg, New Mexico—to which this nation condemned many people whose only transgression was their racial origin.

In retrospect, the position of the U.S. Government on the Japanese-Americans appears little better than the racial policies of the enemy overseas. The policy was sadly consistent, however, with the government's earlier treatment of its minorities. Indeed, there are historical precedents to be found for Executive Order 9066. Consider the tale of the

Acadians celebrated by Longfellow in his *Evangeline*, or the Trail of Tears, the Long Walk and other milestones in the tragic chronicles of our forefathers' dealings with Native Americans. The Soviets have their Gulag, we have ours.

And like our Native Americans, the Japanese-Americans sustained a tragic loss of property—an estimated $400 million in material possessions. Only $40 million, ten cents on the dollar, was ever returned. And much of that was in depreciated dollars.

The evacuees deserve more than they have received, but nobody seriously believes they will ever get more. Congress approved the mass evacuation of 1942, the Supreme Court upheld it, and although tens of thousands of American *citizens* suffered incalculable losses, their government is fearful of setting precedents. The $25,000 a head or $3 billion in reparations asked by the Japanese-American Citizens League would almost certainly invite new claims by one million Native Americans or the 25 million descendants of Kunta Kinte and his fellows.

What sticks in the craw is the absence of an official apology from the government for its wrongs. Nor should it be forgotten that Earl Warren, who won the California governorship in 1942 and was twice re-elected before rising to Chief Justice, never did repudiate his sad role in all of this.

There are those who convincingly argue that what happened was symptomatic of the times. But it can happen again, for the same elements may see nothing exceptional in the physical violence visited upon U.S. passport-carrying Iranians and Iranian-Americans after the 50 Americans were seized as hostages in the Teheran embassy last fall.

Interestingly, these most recent transgressions came at time when some clearer-thinking heads renewed efforts to take up the cause of moral redress of Executive Order 9066.

And it may be that Congressional leaders are about to persuade the nation to accept responsibility for that past. Not satisfied with President Gerald Ford's half-hearted 1976 *mea culpa* that the 1942 evacuation was "wrong," eight U.S. senators introduced S. 1647 in August, 1979—a bill to establish a 15-member Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians. (The bill's sponsors were Hawaii's Daniel K. Inouye and Spark Matsunaga, California's Alan Cranston and S.I. Hayakawa, Idaho's Frank Church and James McClure, and Washington's Warren Magnuson and Henry (Scoop) Jackson.) The following month, Majority Leader Jim Wright of Texas led 113 co-sponsors to introduce a similar bill (H.R. 5499) in the House and in November, Congressman Mike Lowry of Washington state, with sixteen members of the House, sponsored H.R. 5977 which would have authorized direct redress to the World War II detainees. The outcome was an amended version of the Senate bill which won the support of both houses and was signed into Public Law 96–317 by President Carter on July 31, 1980.

"The Federal Government itself has yet to acknowledge the wrong which was committed in complete disregard of the process of law."

As Senator Matsunaga put it, "Although historians and many Americans have long recognized the internment of the Japanese-Americans as a black page in American history, the Federal Government itself has yet to acknowledge the wrong which was committed in complete disregard of due process of law."

Public Law 96–317 does not address the issue of reparations. It merely provides for an objective, unbiased study of the 1942 espisode. For the victims of Executive Order 9066 this may seem an empty gesture, but it will at least serve to remind many of us of our capacity to match the wretched excesses we are quick to pin on other nations. As Clarence Mitchell, Chairman of the Leadership Conference on Civil Rights, put it recently, should such a bill become law, "our country will then be able to speak with greater confidence and credibility when it rightly calls for respect for human rights in other parts of the world." While it's too early to tell exactly what findings and recommendations the newly created commission will eventually convey to Congress and the President, the fact that such a commission is finally in place is an important, if overdue, step in setting right a grievous wrong. ◆

PART I CAUSES, EVENTS, AND CONTEXT LEADING TO THE INTERNMENT

Objective: To inform the students that there were many causes and events leading to the internment of over 110,000 Japanese Americans during WWII.

Materials: Evacuation Order for Seattle, Washington (Handout A)
Newspaper Headlines and Public Statements (Handout B)
Tri-continuum Timeline (Handout C)

Procedures:

1. Introduce this unit by informing the students that they will be studying about an event in U.S. history that happened during WWII. It is an event which raises numerous questions about the powers of the U.S. Government and how it enacts those powers in times of stress (such as war), and why.

2. Distribute "Evacuation Instructions" (Handout A) to the students. Give them a few minutes to read and review it. Open up a discussion on the handout by asking questions such as:

   (a) "How many of you are aware that the government removed over 110,000 Japanese Americans from their homes, depriving them of their property and rights? (For those who are aware, ask: "What can you tell us about it?")

   (b) "Does anyone know why the Japanese Americans were evacuated?" (Undoubtedly, the December 7th attack on Pearl Harbor will be a response. As this occurs, you should suggest that this was the triggering event and then continue to ask if anyone knows other reasons.)

   (c) "Do governments always act rationally during war or at other times of stress (e.g. insurrection)?"

   (d) "Is it possible that irrational acts can be committed by governments when they feel paranoid or are under attack internally or externally? Give some examples (from daily newspapers or U.S./world history).

   (e) "Is it possible that the internment was an over-reaction on the part of the U.S. or as part of a pattern of behavior toward the Japanese Americans that did not exist for the Italian and German Americans (since we were at war with Germany and Italy, as well)?"

3. Distribute "Headlines and Public Statements" (Handout B) to the students. Have them react to it.

4. Distribute "Tri-continuum Timeline" (Handout C) to the students. Review it with them going over each historical timeline. As you review the historical highlights, ask the students if they see the interconnection between the U.S.-Japan international relations, what was happening in the U.S. and passage of immigration laws and the Japanese American experiences.

5. Conclude this part of the unit by asking the students if they still see the attack on Pearl Harbor as the only reason for the internment.

WESTERN DEFENSE COMMAND AND FOURTH ARMY
WARTIME CIVIL CONTROL ADMINISTRATION

Presidio of San Francisco, California

April 24, 1942

INSTRUCTIONS TO ALL PERSONS OF JAPANESE ANCESTRY

Living in the Following Area:

All that portion of the City of Seattle, State of Washington, lying generally south of an east-west line beginning at the point at which Jackson Street meets Elliott Bay; thence easterly along Jackson Street to Fifth Avenue; thence southerly on Fifth Avenue to Dearborn Street; thence easterly on Dearborn Street to Twenty-third Avenue; thence northerly on Twenty-third Avenue to Yesler Way; thence easterly on Yesler Way to Lake Washington.

Pursuant to the provisions of Civilian Exclusion Order No. 18, this Headquarters, dated April 24, 1942, all persons of Japanese ancestry, both alien and non-alien, will be evacuated from the above area by 12 o'clock noon, P. W. T., Friday, May 1, 1942.

No Japanese person living in the above area will be permitted to change residence after 12 o'clock noon, P. W. T., Friday, April 24, 1942, without obtaining special permission from the representative of the Commanding General, Northwestern Sector, at the Civil Control Station located at:

1319 Rainier Avenue, Seattle, Washington.

Such permits will only be granted for the purpose of uniting members of a family, or in cases of grave emergency.

The Civil Control Station is equipped to assist the Japanese population affected by this evacuation in the following ways:

1. Give advice and instructions on the evacuation.
2. Provide services with respect to the management, leasing, sale, storage or other disposition of most kinds of property, such as real estate, business and professional equipment, household goods, boats, automobiles and livestock.
3. Provide temporary residence elsewhere for all Japanese in family groups.
4. Transport persons and a limited amount of clothing and equipment to their new residence.

The Following Instructions Must Be Observed:

1. A responsible member of each family, preferably the head of the family, or the person in whose name most of the property is held, and each individual living alone, will report to the Civil Control Station to receive further instructions. This must be done between 8:00 A. M. and 5:00 P. M. on Saturday, April 25, 1942, or between 8:00 A. M. and 5:00 P. M. on Sunday, April 26, 1942.

2. Evacuees must carry with them on departure for the Assembly Center, the following property:

(a) Bedding and linens (no mattress) for each member of the family;
(b) Toilet articles for each member of the family;
(c) Extra clothing for each member of the family;
(d) Sufficient knives, forks, spoons, plates, bowls and cups for each member of the family;
(e) Essential personal effects for each member of the family.

All items carried will be securely packaged, tied and plainly marked with the name of the owner and numbered in accordance with instructions obtained at the Civil Control Station.

The size and number of packages is limited to that which can be carried by the individual or family group.

3. No pets of any kind will be permitted.

4. The United States Government through its agencies will provide for the storage at the sole risk of the owner of the more substantial household items, such as iceboxes, washing machines, pianos and other heavy furniture. Cooking utensils and other small items will be accepted for storage if crated, packed and plainly marked with the name and address of the owner. Only one name and address will be used by a given family.

5. Each family, and individual living alone, will be furnished transportation to the Assembly Center or will be authorized to travel by private automobile in a supervised group. All instructions pertaining to the movement will be obtained at the Civil Control Station.

Go to the Civil Control Station between the hours of 8:00 A. M. and 5:00 P. M., Saturday, April 25, 1942, or between the hours of 8:00 A. M. and 5:00 P. M., Sunday, April 26, 1942, to receive further instructions.

- 3 -

J. L. DeWITT
Lieutenant General, U. S. Army
Commanding

HEADLINES & PUBLIC STATEMENTS

"...now Japs are being brought here in countless numbers to demoralize and discourage our domestic labor market and to be educated at our expense. We are paying out money to allow fully developed men who know no morals but vice to sit beside our daughters and debauch and demoralize them...The Japs must go!"

-Dennis Kearney, founder of the Workingmen's Party, July, 1892, in Frank E. Chuman. The Bamboo People (1976)

"...The Chinese and Japanese are not bona fide citizens. They are not the stuff of which American citizens can be made...Personally we have nothing against the Japanese but they will not assimilate with us and their social life is so different from ours, let them keep a respectful distance."

-James D. Phelon, Mayor of San Francisco, 1900 in Daniels Roger. The Politics of Racism (1962)

"Our vital interest is to keep the Japanese out of our country and, at the same time, preserve the goodwill of Japan."

-President Theodore Roosevelt, in correspondence to Secretary of the Navy, Philander Knox, 1910 in Frank E. Chuman. The Bamboo People (1976)

"Save California From the Japs"

-Campaign slogan of anti-Japanese groups in California, 1919, in Frank E. Chuman. The Bamboo People (1976)

"Herd'em up, pack'em off and give'em the inside room in the badlands. Let'em be pinched, hurt, hungry and dead against it...Let us have not patience with the enemy or with anyone whose veins carry his blood... Personally, I hate the Japanese."

-Henry McLemore in the San Francisco Examiner in The Experience of Japanese Americans in the U.S./A Teacher Resource Manual by the Advisory Council to the Ethnic Heritage Project of the Japanese American Citizens League (1978)

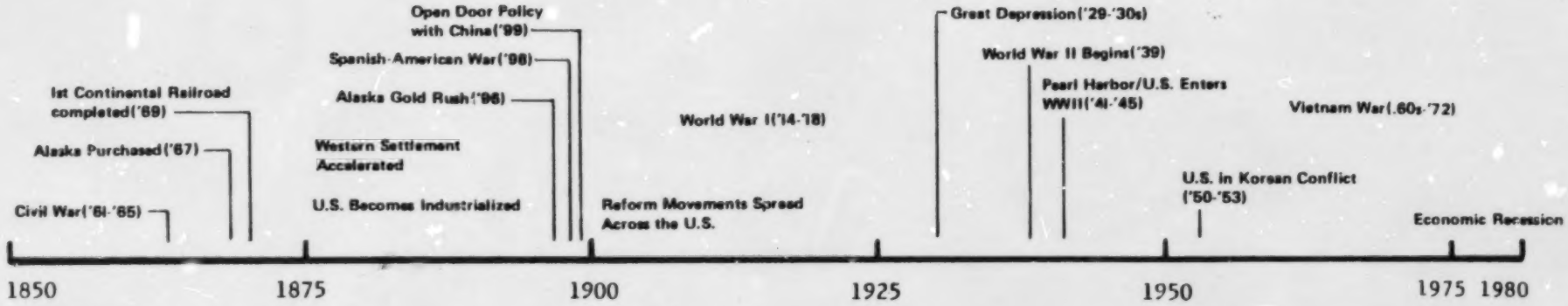
"If Lincoln were alive today, what would he do...to defend the nation against the Japanese horde...the people born on American soil who have secret loyalty to the Japanese Emperor?

There isn't a shadow of a doubt but that Lincoln, the mild-mannered man whose memory we regard with almost saint-like reverence, would make short work of rounding up the Japanese and putting them where they could do no harm. The removal of all those of Japanese parentage must be effected before it is too late."

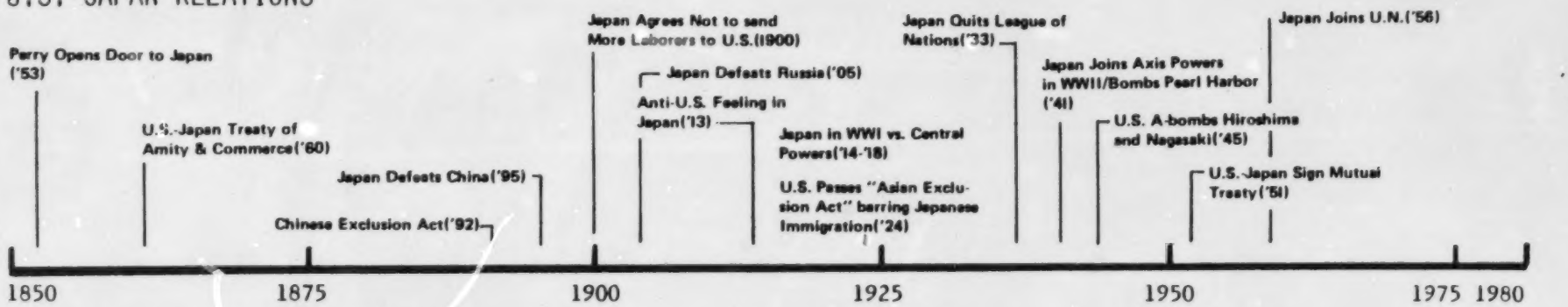
-Mayor Fletcher Bowron of Los Angeles, February 12, 1942, in Frank E. Chuman. The Bamboo People (1976)

TRI-CONTINUUM TIMELINE

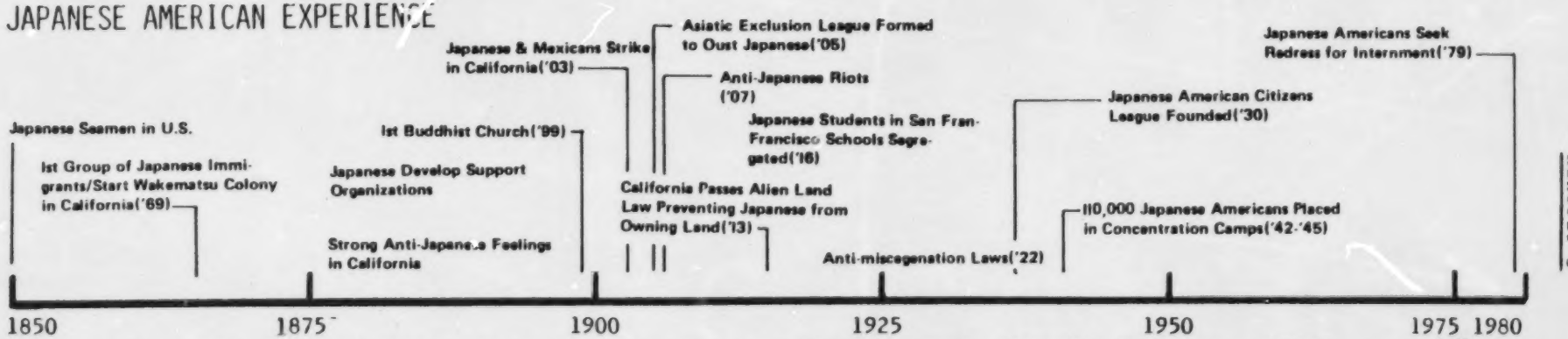
U.S. HISTORY



U.S.-JAPAN RELATIONS



JAPANESE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE


Asiatic Exclusion League Formed to Oust Japanese('05)
Japanese & Mexicans Strike in California('03)
Japanese Americans Seek Redress for Internment('79)
Anti-Japanese Riots ('07)
Japanese American Citizens League Founded('30)
Japanese Seamen in U.S.
Japanese Students in San Francisco Schools Segregated('16)
1st Buddhist Church('99)
1st Group of Japanese Immigrants/Start Wakematsu Colony in California('69)
Japanese Develop Support Organizations
California Passes Alien Land Law Preventing Japanese from Owning Land('13)
110,000 Japanese Americans Placed in Concentration Camps('42-'45)
Strong Anti-Japanese Feelings in California
Anti-miscegenation Laws('22)
1850
1875
1900
1925
1950
1975
1980

Source: A. Barretto Ogilvie/ Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction(Olympia, Washington· 1981)

PART II GOVERNMENT ACTIONS VS. INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS

Objectives: To have the students examine the U.S. Government's justification and/or legitimization of its internment of over 110,000 Japanese Americans.

Materials: "Outbreak of War/Expulsion and Detention" (Reading #1)
"Korematsu Case/U.S. Supreme Court Opinion" (Reading #2)
"U.S. Government War Powers and Individual Civil Rights" (Handout D)

Procedures:

1. Open this part of the unit with a brief explanation and/or discussion on the importance of our constitutionally-based civil rights. Ask the students to list some of them and explain why they are important in a democratic society.

2. Distribute "Outbreak of War/Expulsion and Detention" (Reading #1) to the students. Let them read it for a few minutes. You may want to review it with them, although this may not be necessary.

3. After the students have read Reading #1 (page 8), distribute "U.S. Government War Power and Individual Civil Rights" (Handout D) and inform the students that the Japanese American internment raised serious constitutional questions involving the exercise of American government powers and the basic rights of U.S. citizens.

   Have the students review the handout. Mention that a number of Japanese Americans challenged the constitutionality of their forced removal and placement in a concentration camp.

4. Tell the students that the class will simulate a court hearing in which the teacher will role-play the judge and the students, divided into three groups, will role-play as legal advisors for the Presidency, the Congress and the Japanese American people.

   To assist the students in developing their arguments, distribute the "Korematsu Case/U.S. Supreme Opinion" (Reading #2) and review it with them.

5. Divide the class into three groups and assign roles. Instruct them that they are to discuss their respective situations using the "U.S. Government War Powers..." handout and the "Korematsu/Opinion" reading. They are also to select a spokesperson to present their case (five minutes before the judge). Allow the groups to discuss and develop their presentation for about 20-25 minutes.

6. At the end of the small group discussion, pull the class together and have each spokesperson ("counselor") present their case, giving them five minutes each.

7. After they have finished, ask the students to compare the points raised in today's class with the historical timeline chart.

For tomorrow's class give each student "Evacuation Order Form" (Handout E). Ask them to fill it out for tomorrow's class.

READING #1

OUTBREAK OF WAR

(SOURCE: **The Japanese American Incarceration: A Case for Redress,** The National Committee for Redress, Japanese American Citizen League; San Francisco, 1978)

It is difficult to pinpoint exactly when World War II began. Germany and Japan became military powers in the 1930s and began their conquests by annexing neighboring nations by sheer intimidation. Actually, military conflicts broke out in Asia when Japan invaded China in 1937, and in Europe when Germany invaded Poland in 1939.

As Germany overran the European continent and drove into Africa and the Soviet Union, and Japan likewise in Asia and Southeast Asia, the United States was placed under tremendous pressure to enter the war. In July 1941, the United States together with Britain and the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia) imposed a total embargo on exports to Japan, thus effectively cutting off Japan's oil supply.

The United States had broken Japan's top secret code and was aware of the oil crisis in Japan and the probability of armed conflict. Consequently, the U.S. government undertook certain precautionary measures. In October 1941, the State Department dispatched a special investigator, Curtis B. Munson, to check on the disposition of the Japanese American communities on the West Coast and Hawaii.

In November 1941, Munson submitted a confidential report to the President and the Secretary of State which certified that Japanese Americans possessed an extraordinary degree of loyalty to the United States, and immigrant Japanese were of no danger. Munson's findings were corroborated by years of secret surveillance conducted by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and Navy Intelligence. Both the FBI and Navy Intelligence reported there were a few potential extremists identified but almost 100% of the Japanese American population was perfectly trustworthy. High U.S. government and military officials were aware of these intelligence reports, but they kept them from the public.

Japan's military forces attacked the U.S. military bases near Honolulu, Territory of Hawaii, and near Manila, Territory of the Philipines, on December 7, 1941 (U.S. Time), and the United States declared war on the following day.

Many people who are unfamiliar with the historical background have assumed that the attack on Hawaii was the cause of, or justification for, the mass incarceration of Japanese Americans on the West Coast. But that assumption is contradicted by one glaring fact: the Japanese Americans in Hawaii were not similarly incarcerated en masse. Such a massive injustice could not have occurred without the prior history of prejudice and legal discrimination. Actually, it was the culmination of the movement to eliminate Asians from the West Coast which began nearly 100 years earlier.

The FBI was well prepared for the war and arrested over 2,000 persons of Japanese ancestry throughout the United States and Territories of Alaska and Hawaii within a few days after the declaration of war. Nearly all of these arrestees were Japanese nationals, but some American citizens were included.

No charge of espionage, sabotage, or any other crime was ever filed against these arrestees. They were apprehended only because they were thought to be "suspicious" persons in the opinion of the FBI. Evidently, anyone who was a community leader was "suspicious" to the FBI because almost all of the arrestees were organization officers, Buddhist or Shinto priests, newspaper editors, language or judo school instructors, or labor organizers. The established leadership of the Japanese American community was wiped out. Inexperienced teen-agers and young adults were suddenly thrust into the position of making crucial decisions affecting the entire Japanese American community.

Men were taken away without notice, and their families were left without a means of livelihood. Most families had no idea why their men were arrested, where they were taken, or for how long. Some arrestees were released after a few weeks, but most were secretly transported to one of 26 internment or isolation camps scattered in 16 states plus the Territories of Alaska and Hawaii.

Some families did not learn for years what happened to their loved ones. Most internees were eventually re-united with their families, but only within another barbed wire compound--the mass detention camps where their families had been sent in the meantime. Some, however, were confined in these special prison camps for the duration of the war, together with the Central and South American Japanese who were brought in for internment at the insistence of the United States.

Perhaps due to the swift action of the FBI, there was very little public panic, hysteria, or irrationality for the first month of the war. In fact, public opinion was remarkably enlightened: some newspapers even published editorials and letters sympathetic to Japanese Americans, and some elected officials urged the general public not to blame or harm Japanese Americans.

The white economic interests in California, however, were not satisifed with the arrests of individuals, and the fact that domestic security was under firm control. They wanted the entire Japanese American population eliminated from California. The same pressure groups and newspapers that agitated so long for Japanese exclusion organized an intense rumor and hate campaign. Totally false stories were published about spies and saboteurs among the Japanese Americans. The war became the perfect pretext for the anti-Japanese groups to accomplish the goal they had been seeking for almost 50 years.

The truth was that no person of Japanese ancestry living in the United States or Territories of Alaska and Hawaii was ever charged with, or convicted of espionage or sabotage. On the other hand, numerous persons of non-Japanese ancestry were charged and convicted as agents for Japan.

Because of the long background of prejudice and stereotypes, the public found it easy to believe the false stories. High federal officials knew the facts, but they kept silent. By mid-January 1942, public opinion began to turn against the Japanese Americans. Elected officials, city councils, and civic organizations in California, Oregon and Washington demanded the ouster and incarceration of all Japanese Americans.

Earl Warren, then attorney general of California, made the incredible statement that the very absence of fifth column activities by Japanese Americans was confirmation that such actions were planned for the future. Warren also claimed American citizens of Japanese ancestry were more dangerous than nationals of Japan.

There were a few isolated acts of violence committed against Japanese Americans, but there was no reason to believe the entire Japanese American population was in danger. If there were any threats, it was the job of local police and sheriff's departments to provide protection. Also, many Japanese Americans were perfectly willing to take whatever risk necessary to protect their home and property.

EXPULSION AND DETENTION

Like the immigration exclusion campaigns before, the California lobby pressured the federal government to remove and/or lock up all Japanese Americans. Oregon and Washington supported California's demands, but the rest of the nation was generally unconcerned about the tiny Japanese American minority. There were many important and real war problems needing attention, but the West Coast pressure groups seemed preoccupied with the elimination of Japanese Americans.

President Franklin Roosevelt eventually yielded to the pressures from California and signed Executive Order 9066 on February 19, 1942. Roosevelt signed the order despite objections from Attorney General Francis Biddle, who felt it was unconstitutional, and FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover, who felt it was unneccessary.

Executive Order 9066 broadly authorized any military commander to exclude any person from any area. The presidential order did not mention any specific group, nor did it provide for detention. However, there was an understanding among high officials that the authorization was to be used for the purpose of removing and incarcerating the Japanese Americans. Also, due to the lobbying from California, Congress backed the Executive Order by passing Public Law 77-503, which authorized a civil prison term and fine for a civilian convicted of violating a military order.

General John L. DeWitt, military commander of the Western Defense Command, thereupon issued a series of 100 military orders applying exclusively to civilians of Japanese ancestry living in the West Coast states. The sole basis for DeWitt's orders was ancestry; he was often quoted as stating: "A Jap's a Jap. It makes no difference whether the Jap is a citizen or not." He further masked the issue of citizen rights by using the term "non-alien" to refer to United States citizens in all of his written orders.

It should be noted that martial law was not declared on the West Coast; the writ of habeas corpus was not suspended; the civil courts were in full operation, and anyone charged with espionage or sabotage could have been brought to trial. It also should be remembered that of 1,100,000 nationals of enemy nations living in the United States in 1942, less than 4% were Japanese nationals.

DeWitt first announced that all persons of Japanese ancestry must leave the Western half of the West Coast states and the Southern half of Arizona, and urged the affected people to move inland "voluntarily." Approximately 10,000 tried to comply, mostly moving in with relatives in the Eastern half of the West Coast states and interior states. Many, however, were forced to turn back by hostile crowds and armed posses.

American citizens of Japanese ancestry were placed under curfew, included with nationals of Japan, Germany and Italy. American citizens of German and Italian ancestries were not restricted in any way.

DeWitt then announced that all persons of Japanese ancestry would be expelled from the Eastern half of the West Coast states as well and prohibited from any further "voluntary" migration. He ordered them to main-

tain their residences until ordered to report for detention. Beginning in March, 1942, DeWitt ordered all persons of Japanese ancestry in California, plus parts of Arizona, Oregon and Washington to turn themselves in at a temporary detention camp near their homes.

The rationale for these actions on the West Coast was "military necessity," but such a claim was inconsistent with the fact that Japanese Americans in Hawaii were not similarly subjected to wholesale and indiscriminate incarceration. Hawaii was 3,000 miles closer to the enemy, and in far greater danger of invasion and sabotage. The military commander in Hawaii decided that "military necessity" there required the vast majority of Japanese Americans to remain free to help maintain the islands' economy.

Like the initial FBI roundups on the mainland, some Japanese nationals in Hawaii were imprisoned on an individual basis and held in prison camps on the islands or transferred to the mass detention or smaller internment camps on the mainland. Only 1% of the Hawaii Japanese population was incarcerated.

DeWitt's detention orders were ostensibly for the purpose of protecting the West Coast against sabotage and espionage, but babies, orphans, adopted children, the infirm and bedridden elderly were also imprisoned. Children of multiple ancestry were included if they had any Japanese ancestry at all. Colonel Karl Bendetsen, who directly administered the program, stated, "I am determined that if they have one drop of Japanese blood in them, they must go to camp."

Non-Japanese spouses, adoptive parents, and orphange directors were forced to surrender their children for incarceration or enter the camp themselves. The only exceptions were for those confined in prisons or asylums, and the few adults with 1/32 or less Japanese ancestry who could prove they had no contact whatsoever with other persons of Japanese ancestry.

There were 15 temporary detention camps scattered throughout Arizona, California, Oregon and Washington. They were mostly county fairgrounds, race tracks, and livestock exhibition halls hastily converted into detention camps with barbed wire fences, search lights and guard towers. Each camp held about 5,000 detainees, except for the Santa Anita Race Track near Los Angeles which held over 18,000 and Mayer, Arizona which held only 247. Living quarters consisted of horse stalls, some with manure still inside.

Japanese Americans had to leave their homes with only a few days notice and could take only what they could carry with them. Property had to be hurriedly sold, abandoned, given away, left in insecure storage or unpredictable trusts. Crops were left unharvested. Many lost titles to homes, businesses and farmlands because taxes and mortgage payments became impossible to pay. Bank accounts had already been frozen or confiscated as "enemy assests," and there was little source of income within the camps.

The incarceration of Japanese Americans was accomplished district by district over a five month period. DeWitt methodically issued detention orders almost daily, each applying to a new locale. As the orders progressed through the Eastern half of California, Japanese Americans in the Eastern halves of Oregon and Washington fully expected their turn would be next. They stripped their possessions down to the bare essentials that

they could carry, just as the others had been required to do. They lived day to day unsettled under the constant threat of imminent proscription, but the actual detention orders never came.

Government actions also encouraged private harrassment. For example, in one town outside the official expulsion area, the entire Japanese American community was boycotted and forced to leave town.

At great cost and despite the critical shortage of materials, the government built 10 mass detention camps in the isolated areas of Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Idaho, Utah and Wyoming. The vast majority of Japanese Americans were moved from the temporary detention camps near their hometowns to the permanent camps several hundred miles away after the threat of invasion had vanished. Each of the permanent camps held some 12,000 Japanese Americans and a total of about 110,000 Japanese Americans were ultimately detained.

The inland camps were located in desolate areas and were surrounded by a high barbed wire fence, sometimes two such fences, sometimes electrified. Guard towers were placed at strategic intervals and any Japanese American leaving without permission was shot. Dozens of detainees and internees were shot and wounded and eight were killed by guards (1 at Central Utah, 1 at Gila River, 2 at Manzanar, 1 at Tule Lake, 2 at Lordsburg, 1 at Fort Sill). Living quarters were crowded and there was no privacy. Large extended families or groups of unrelated individuals were squeezed into tiny unpartitioned 16 x 20 feet units.

Japanese Americans were known for their pride in rarely having been on welfare or locked up in prisons, but the camps relegated them into wards of the government guarded by armed soldiers. Fathers were no longer the family breadwinners; parents lost control of their children and families rarely ate meals together. Many were terrified because of the unpredictable future and the hopelessness of the situation. Many did not expect to come out alive.

Overwhelming despair caused some detainees to commit suicide. Many more died prematurely due to inadequate medical facilities and the harsh environment.

All incoming and outgoing communications were censored, including personal letters and newspapers. All internal communications were strictly controlled by the camp administration. The Japanese language was banned at public meetings and the Buddhist and Shinto religions were suppressed.*

While the Japanese Americans were incarcerated, unknown to them at the time, some members of Congress and the State Department proposed legislation or executive actions to strip all native-born Americans of Japanese ancestry of their citizenship and deport them to Japan after the war.

*This was true in some situations, but not all, according to eye witness accounts.

Other elected officials demanded that the imprisoned Japanese Americans be used as reprisal targets for the mistreatment of American prisoners of war. One member of Congress even proposed a mandatory sterilization program. Fortunately, none of these measures were taken.

However, another form of indignity was imposed on the detainees in February 1943. After being imprisoned for nearly a year, all detainees 17 years of age and older were required to answer a questionnaire indicating their loyalty to the United States and their willingness to serve in the U.S. armed forces. It was an audacious act for the government to require such an oath from people already locked up.

Due to the insensitive wording, Japanese nationals were asked, in effect, to renounce the only citizenship they could have (since they were prohibited from becoming U.S. citizens) and render themselves stateless. American citizens were asked to falsely incriminate themselves by "foreswearing" an allegiance to Japan--an allegiance they never had. Women and elderly persons were asked to serve on "combat duty whenever ordered."

Despite all the confusion, fear, anger, bitterness and incongruity, the majority of detainees affirmatively signed the oath. This did not mean, however, that the minority who refused to cooperate were any less loyal or patriotic. Some highly principled individuals felt their fundamental constitutional rights should be restored before signing. Under the circumstances of a prison camp environment, the loyalty questionnaire did not measure a person's true loyalty.

The detainees tried to make the dreary camps halfway tolerable by foraging scrap materials to make furniture and room partitions. They used indigenous plants to make gardens and surplus materials or adobe to build schools and recreation facilities. Detainees also operated their own camp farms and many camps became self-supporting in food.

Detainees volunteered to relieve the critical farm labor shortage in the Mountain Plains area and were granted seasonal work leaves. Others were given leaves to fill labor shortages in Midwest and East Coast factories and college students were granted educational leaves. But these leaves were a form of parole: they were not free to go or do anything they wanted and had to periodically report to government officials. During 1943 and 1944, about 33% of the detainees, mostly young single men and women, were conditionally released on various forms of leaves or for military duty. The other 67% remained in the camps for the duration of the war.

When the United States entered the war in 1941, there were about 5,000 Japanese Americans in the armed forces, but many were summarily discharged as unsuitable for service. Japanese Americans were classified by the Selective Service System as "enemy" nationals (4C) ineligible for service. Thousands of Japanese Americans volunteered for duty but were refused enlistment.

The armed forces, however, soon discovered the need for Japanese language specialists and started to recruit Japanese Americans for the Military Intelligence Service and Office of Strategic Services in June 1942. The

Selective Service System was bypassed and the fact that Japanese Americans were serving with the U.S. armed forces in the Pacific Theater was not made public knowledge. Japanese American soldiers in Asia and in the Pacific Islands worked primarily as translators, but engaged in combat whenever the need arose. By having obtained crucial military intelligence, the Japanese American soldiers are generally credited with shortening the Pacific war by two years.

In January 1943, the U.S. War Department announced that Japanese American volunteers would be accepted for combat duty in Europe. Most of the volunteers came from Hawaii, but there were also thousands who volunteered from within the mass detention camps on the mainland. The volunteers were assigned to a segregated Japanese American unit--the 442nd Regimental Combat Team. The 442nd eventually became the most decorated American unit to fight in World War II for its size and length of service.

In January 1944, the Selective Service System started to draft Japanese American men, even though they were still incarcerated in the camps. Some 33,000 Japanese Americans served in the U.S. armed forces during World War II, 6,000 of them in the Pacific Theater. Some Japanese American soldiers in the combat zones were much more concerned about the treatment of their families still incarcerated behind barbed wire fences in the United States than they were about the enemy firepower they faced.

KOREMATSU CASE/U.S. SUPREME COURT OPINION

Fred Korematsu, an American Citizen of Japanese ancestry, refused to leave California, and was convicted of violation of the law in a federal district court. The conviction was upheld in a court of appeals, and Korematsu brought his case to the Supreme court on a writ of certiorari. The constitutional issue was: Does the constitutional power of Congress to make war outweigh constitutional guarantees of individual rights? In 1943 the Supreme Court, upholding the court of appeals, ruled 6-3 that it does. In the majority opinion, Justice Hugo Black said:

> *** No question was raised as to petitioner's loyalty to the United States. . . Regardless of the true nature of the assembly and relocation centers--and we deem it unjustifiable to call them concentration camps with all the ugly connotations that term implies--we are dealing specifically with nothing but an exclusion order. . . Korematsu was not excluded from the Military Area because of hostility to him or his race. He was excluded because we are at war with the Japanese Empire, because the properly constituted military authorities feared an invasion of our West coast and felt constrained to take proper security measures, because they decided that the military urgency of the situation demanded that all citizens of Japanese ancestry be segregated from the West Coast temporarily, and finally, because Congress, reposing its confidence in this time of war in our military leaders--as inevitably it must--determined that they should have the power to do just this. ***

Justice Felix Frankfurter agreed with the majority, but wrote a concurring opinion of his own:

> *** The provisions of the Constitution which confer on the Congress and the President powers to enable this country to wage war are as much part of the constitution as provisions looking to a nation at peace. . . Therefore, the validity of action under the war power must be judged wholly in the context of war. . . . If a military order such as that under review does not transcend (exceed) the means appropriate for conducting war, such action by the military is as constitutional as would be any authorized action by the Interstate Commerce Commission within the limits of the constitutional power to regulate commerce. And being an exercise of the war power explicitly granted by the Constitution for safeguarding the national life by prosecuting war effectively, I find nothing in the Constitution which denies to Congress the power to enforce such a valid military order by making its violation an offense triable in the civil courts. ***

Justice Owen Roberts did not agree with the majority opinion, and wrote a dissenting opinion:

> *** I dissent because I think the indisputable facts exhibit a clear violation of Constitutional rights. . . . It is the case of convicting a citizen as a punishment for not submitting to imprisonment in a concentration camp, based on his ancestry, and solely because of his ancestry, without evidence of inquiry concerning his loyalty and good disposition towards the United States. . . . Constitutional rights have been violated. ***

In a separate dissent, Justice Frank Murphy included a spirited attack on racism.

> *** Such exclusion goes over "the very brink of constitutional power" and falls into the ugly abyss of racism. . . . Being an obvious racial discrimination, the other deprives all those within its scope of the equal protection of the laws as guaranteed by the Fifth Amendment. .
>
> I dissent, therefore, from the legalization of racism. Racial discrimination in any form and in any degree has no justifiable part whatever in our democratic way of life. It is unattractive in any setting but it is utterly revolting among a free people who have embraced the principles set forth in the Constitution of the United States. All residents of this nation are kin in some way by blood or culture to a foreign land. Yet they are primarily and necessarily a part of the new and distinct civilization of the United States. They must accordingly be treated at all times as the heirs of the American experiment and as entitled to all the rights and freedoms guaranteed by the Constitution. ***

Justice Robert Jackson, in his dissent, made an important point about the role of a Supreme Court decision.

> *** I cannot say, from any evidence before me, that the orders of General DeWitt (the military commander) were not reasonably expedient military precautions, nor could I say that they were. But even if they were permissible military procedures, I deny that it follows that they are constitutional. If, as the Court holds, it does follow, then we may as well say that any military order will be constitutional and have done with it. . . .
>
> Much is said of the danger to liberty from the Army program for deporting and detaining these citizens of Japanese extraction. But a judicial construction of the due process clause that will sustain this order is a far more subtle blow to liberty than the promulgation of the order itself. . . . Once a judicial opinion rationalizes such an order to show that it conforms to the Constitution, or rather rationalizes the Constitution to show that the Constitution sanctions such an order, the Court for all time has validated the principle of racial discrimination in criminal procedure and of transplanting American citizens. The principle then lies about like a loaded weapon ready for the hand of any authority that can bring forward a plausible claim of an urgent need. ***

U. S. GOVERNMENT WAR POWERS & INDIVIDUAL CIVIL RIGHTS
(U.S. CONSTITUTION)

War Powers/Congress

Article I, Section 8, sub-sections 11-18

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13. To provide and maintain a navy;

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular states and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; and,

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

War Powers/The President

Article II, Sections 1.8 and 2.1

Section 1.8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

Section 2.1. The President shall be commander in chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Individual Civil Rights

Amendments I, IV, V, VI, and XV

AMENDMENT I (First ten amendments ratified December 15, 1791.)
Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

AMENDMENT IV
The right of the people to secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

AMENDMENT V
No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

AMENDMENT VI
In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

AMENDMENT XIV (Ratified July 9, 1868)

Section I. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside. No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges of immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

AMENDMENT XV (Ratified February 3, 1870)

Section 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

PART III CAMP LIFE - DISRUPTION, DIFFICULTIES AND A DETERMINATION TO MAKE IT

Objective: To make the students aware that the internment disrupted the lives of the interned Japanese Americans, that camp life was filled with hardship, and after the war, made it difficult for them to return to a normal life.

Materials: Evacuation Order Form (Handout E)
Testimony Statements (Reading #3)
List of Camps and Number of Detainees (Handout F)

Procedures:

1. Write across the top of the chalkboard...

Personal Belongings	Camp Life Features	Arrangements
1.	1.	1.
2.	2.	2.
3.	3.	3.
4.	4.	4.
5.	5.	5.
6.	6.	6.
7.	7.	7.

Ask the students to share what they wrote down on their Evacuation Order forms. List some of their responses on the board.

2. After you have 6 or 7 items for each list ask the students to search in their notes for the original Evacuation Instructions (Handout A) and review what they said they would like to bring with those listed on the Order. Cross out those listed on the board if they are not listed on the Evacuation Order.

3. Inform the students that as far as personal arrangements were concerned there were none. (The Japanese Americans had only a week or less to make arrangements.) Cross out all those listed under arrangements unless they could be done in a day or less.

4. Obtain pictures that can be shared with the class or show a slide show or film of camp life. (See what is available in the resources section of this unit.) After the showing, have a class discussion on it.

And/Or

Distribute testimony readings to the students. Have them read the statements. After they have completed this, instruct them to take the role of the author and write a letter to their congressional representative listing at least three reasons why he/she should be released from the concentration camp. You may want to explain that writing to

congressional representatives for help is a common way many Americans obtain assistance. You might also need to name the local congressional representative for them.

5. Have the students break into groups of 3-4 and share their letters with each other OR collect the letters and read them overnight making comments on them.

EVACUATION ORDER FORM

You and your family have been ordered to report for immediate evacuation to an unknown destination. Answer the following items as noted.

A. Your Personal Belongings: You are allowed to bring with you five items in one suitcase, not to exceed 25 pounds. List what you intend to bring:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

B. Camp Life Features: What types of things should camp life include so that you and your family can live there comfortably for at least two years?

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

C. Personal Arrangements: Arrangements must be made because you and your family will be away for at least two years. What property will require consideration for special arrangements, e.g., house, car, etc.?

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

READING #3

TESTIMONY STATEMENTS

(Taken from "Hearing of U.S. Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians" September 10, 1981 in Seattle, Washington)

MASAO TAKAHASHI

My name is MASAO TAKAHASHI. I am presently 87 years old. Forty years ago, I held a job as a cannery foreman for an Alaska fishery company. My earnings were considered high wages among my fellow immigrants. I had many friends and a good standing in the community. I lived in a comfortable house with my wife and four daughters. After twenty years of struggling to subsist in this country as a waiter, logger, maintenance man, etc., I considered my job just prior to the war to be very fortunate.

On the very day of my eldest daughter's eleventh birthday, February 21, 1942, I was roused from my sleep very early in the morning. The FBI, along with four Seattle policemen, searched my house, ransacking closets. I was allowed to dress, but under observation, even in my morning toiletry. I was placed in the Immigration Detention Center. Apparently, I was part of the second group of men to be taken by the authorities. I am a perennial optimist and the anxiety of my fellow inmates had little effect on me. I recall feeling confident that I would be released in time to eat birthday cake with my family that evening. However, when we were stripped naked and thoroughly inspected, my optimism was shaken by the very humiliation of the process. I assumed that cooperation would lead to an early release and resolved to accept the inevitable. But that was not to be. The days were added on to days. Tense boredom, terrible food, and wild rumors were our daily preoccupation. I remember breakfast consisting of coffee, toast and jam. From the window of the Detention Center, I could see our house. Many thoughts would enter my mind as I looked out the window. My family came to visit with regularity. I remember a friendly guard teased my visiting five-year-old daughter by slamming the barred gates closed and telling her she was now a captive. She flew into my arms joyfully, saying, "Oh boy, now I can stay with Papa." Mama had tears in her eyes and I wished I could cry, too.

After approximately a month and a half, my family came to the train station when a group of us were transferred to Missoula, Montana. I was allowed a few minutes to walk to the fence to say goodbye to them. I was at a loss to find comforting words. Boarding the train, I heard my daughters crying out, "Papa, Papa." I cannot describe how I felt at that time. I can still hear the ring of their crying in my ears today. This was the first time it occurred to me that I might not see them again.

I remember being given an egg with breakfast at Missoula. This was our first egg since being incarcerated and it caused quite a stir. I never thought I could appreciate an egg so much. From the camp in Missoula, I was shunted from place to place for two years. I remember one camp guard spoke Japanese and greeted us with, "Yoo koso, oide kudasai mashita." The irony of that gracious welcome had a very depressing affect on us.

From somewhere in Louisiana, I wound up in a camp in New Mexico. It seems I was kept constantly on the move with little rhyme or reason. It was from this camp in Santa Fe that I was able to make arrangements to go to Crystal City, Texas where I would be reunited with my family. My numb feelings were revitalized. I had tried to imagine what their lives were like since their incarceration in about April of 1942. My wife was never a

physically healthy person and with four small children of 11, 9, 5, and 1, I often wondered how she was really faring. My anticipation of seeing my family again, became an obsession. My two-year forced separation became more acutely painful just prior to our reunion. I feared the cruel punishment of possible cancellation.

The reunion was the most joyful affair of my life. The girls had grown so much I mistook my second daughter for my eldest. My wife had aged. The baby was not walking. Her prepared speech was, "Otoo san watakushi was Midori, desu. Ookiku natta deshyo?" ("Father, I am Midori. Haven't I grown up?") She managed to make her speech well for me, but it was months before she stopped hiding from me. What a strange feeling--my own daughter afraid of me. The second two years of camp life were a thousand times better than the first two, lonely and hard years. The administration of the camp was infinitely more humane than the previous ones, but more important, I was with my family. Here in Crystal City, we were addressed with the titles of Mr. and Mrs. Meals were cooked and served in individual families and a much greater degree of privacy was maintained. I participated in the operation of the camp by volunteering for the job of meat butcher. Even under the parameters of these conditions, we had a healthy sense of community in this camp.

There was a barbed wire fence close to the back side of our housing unit. I remember one incident that innocently rose from the mouth of my four-year-old daughter. She excitedly reported to Mama the capture and demise of a rat caught by our neighbor. She finished the story with the carcass of the rat being tossed far "inside" the fence. . . . Again, I saw tears in Mama's eyes and I wished that I was able to cry. Instead, I mumbled to Mama that she was a fool.

The end of the war brought an unexpected dilemma. As a Japanese citizen, it was always my intention to return to Japan. My wife strongly favored the immediate repatriation to Japan upon release from Camp, but I thought the prospects for employment were better if we returned to Seattle. I felt guilty forsaking the country of my birth and education. Mama and I had many arguments regarding our future prospects, but I prevailed. We were delayed in leaving Camp after the war because of reported housing shortages in Seattle. I came home to Seattle in April of 1946, and I came with both feelings of relief as well as fear. My bank account left with Mama was a balance of four thousand dollars before the war. It was reduced to two hundred dollars when we returned to Seattle four years later. I did not receive any money from the government upon release from Camp and I borrowed money from a friend to start a small business of a grocery store in partnership with a fellow-internee. I was never able to regain the financial comfort nor the social standing of my pre-war days.

Today, aside from my old infirmities, I am very comfortable in my late years. Despite the fact that I was unable to give my daughters the support I wanted to in their growing years, they have given so freely of their time and resources to keep me comfortable. My beautiful eight grandchildren are a great comfort to me. I live as a lord in my old age, due to their grace and largely at their grace. I am very happy that the government of America is looking into the past. I think it takes a great country to admit its mistakes and make proper restitution. America has that greatness.

THERESA HOTORU MATSUDAIRA

My name is Hotoru Matsudaira. My baptismal name is Theresa. I was born in 1902 and am now 79 years old. My husband, Thomas Tokuhisha Matsudaira, brought me to America around July 24, 1921. Since the time I was a little girl, I had had a great desire to see America. I breathed the air of the great land of America and had considered my joys and sorrows as blessings.

Before I had children, to learn English I went to work as a waitress at the Matsuba Restaurant on Main Street so I could start to work as a chambermaid at a hotel. After I learned a little English, I worked at the Rose Cafe also on Main Street.

My eldest son, John, was born in 1922. Then Michael, Francis and James were born so I became very busy. Next, my eldest daughter, Paulene, was born. The year after Mary Elizabeth was born, that dreadful Japanese-American War (World War II) began on December 8, 1941, at Pearl Harbor.

Relationships between Japan and America had absolutely no connection between the Japanese and the second generation Japanese in America, but we became like people who fell off a cliff and wandered in the mud. We, with so many children, began our frightful and tearful life.

My husband worked as a foreman for a long time at the Kodiac Company, a salmon cannery, and he was well known as Tommy. He was well loved by the white people of the town. He loved baseball, and as soon as a boat reached Kodiac, he played ball with the people on the boat and the Japanese. When canning season was finished, he took four or five Japanese with him and worked for a Japanese oyster company as an opener on an Indian reservation.

With the beginning of the war, Japanese people were not permitted to leave Seattle, but an Indian chief came down for him. Tommy worked until the middle of March of the next year. One night, however, about seven big men with sticks came and told him to get out of there. Indians would suffer great losses because the oyster-opening season had begun, but Tommy did not want anyone injured, so he came home.

We learned that Japanese people in Alaska, Seattle and Bainbridge Island were to be moved and made to live a community life together in Puyallup, but at first we did not believe it. However, with an order from the United States Army, Japanese quietly took just small amounts of luggage and went into the Puyallup assembly center. My family with nine children departed beloved Seattle on May 18, 1941, and entered Puyallup. After that our happy family life was all broken up. We retired every night with the ten o'clock bugle, but I could not sleep from thinking of the children's future and the deep sorrow in my heart.

In the latter part of August, my husband left with the children for a camp in the desert of Idaho. Mrs. Chiseko Nagaishi and I remained behind in Puyallup to deliver our babies. To deliver the baby fast, according to army orders, I was given two little white tablets and castor oil every

morning. I tried for three days, but there was no sign of the baby coming so the doctor decided to stop the medicine and allowed me to go to Idaho to have the baby.

However, the next morning, which was the day before serious patients and we were to move to Idaho, a nurse came with three pills and castor oil. So I told her the doctor told me to stop taking medicine, but the nurse said, "This is a military order, so you should take it." I explained to the doctor what had happened when he came. He said, "What shall we do?"

I was very much worried. I did not want the baby to be born on the train. I could not do anything - not even eat. So I went to the shower room. the fire was still smoldering so I added three shovelfuls of coal. I waited a while. Then I went into the shower and took a cold shower, then a hot shower. I repeated this three or four times. I went outside and ran for three blocks. When I passed in front of the hospital, everyone was looking at me, frightened.

About half past four, labor started. I ran into the hospital and checked on the frequency of the labor pain myself. I went to the delivery room a little before eight and had a baby girl at 8:15 p.m. I was very happy and thankful.

The next morning at 6:00, I boarded the train on a stretcher and went to Eden, Idaho. I was admitted to the hospital, but there was no bedpan and for that I had to wait for three hours. I wondered if strong Indians did things like this, too.

Three years later we were allowed to leave camp if we wished. We had a house in Seattle, poor as it was, so on March 14, 1945, we came home with our new baby and a 90-year-old man who came from Yamaguchi-ken Japan, whom we had met through our friend.

When we reached home, the house had been burglarized and there was not a thing left. All the beds were gone--the rest of the furniture, the kitchen range, even the electric extension cords were all gone.

Father Clement, who brought us home, said, "This is really war."

Three daughters and I were taken in by Maryknoll Sisters. Mother Superior of Providence Hospital gave us a bed for the old man. My husband and the boys slept on the floor for three months.

There was no range to cook on, so I had to prepare meals on an electric plate burner which was very difficult.

The older boys and my husband searched for jobs only to find signs, "Object to Japs." So they went to the W.R.A. office for assistance.

I shall stop this letter here. If you do not approve of what I have written, please throw it away.

My eldest son volunteered for the 442nd RCT from Minidoka, and he received a serious wound in Italy. He was in the Veteran's Hospital in Chicago at this time. My second son, Michael, was in the occupational army in Japan. He pasted a Star 2 picture in the window and put a badge on his front, and finally started to work at Providence Hospital.

After the war, all nine sons served in the Navy, Army, or Air Force.

We sent all 12 children to Catholic school and taught them to keep their balance and stay on their course in peace as well as in troubled times. We, as parents, watched them carefully and prayed with them.

I am already 79 years old. My husband died 30 years ago.

My fervent wish is that without racial discrimination everyone who was born in this country love and help each other. May young people unite their strength and do their best for this great country.

Please continue the course the first generation took; that is, honesty, diligence, and patience. God will surely bless you.

MASATO UYEDA

My name is Masato Uyeda. I was born January 1, 1895, in Hiroshima, Japan, the second son of Masajiro Uyeda. I arrived in Seattle on November 10, 1911 when I was 16 years old. I moved immediately to a mining camp in frontier Wyoming where my father was working. I worked for the Kemmerer Mining Shaft numbers 1, 3, and 4.

I then worked as a railroad lineman for Oregon Shortline Railway in the Ogden, Utah area. I was promoted to section chief for Union Pacific Railroad at Marston in 1917 during World War I.

I moved to Seattle in 1929 and started to work as a gardener. Then, I started in the Sanitary Market selling malt hops and bottling supplies in Pike Place Market. An unkown arsonist burned my store and warehouse to ashes on December 14, 1941, and our family savings of 12 years and all the hard work were lost. I was also arrested by the FBI as an enemy alien and went to the Seattle Immigration Office. I felt so sad that I almost went mad at that time. This is a thing I have never been able to forget in my whole life.

The FBI was unable to find any evidence against me after searching my home. I have never committed any hostile acts or participated in any espionage against the USA. Yet, they arrested me and forced me into the Immigration Office, leaving my wife and children in our home. My group was moved by blind window trains to Fort Lincoln, Bismarck, North Dakota.

Our life in Fort Lincoln was like that of birds in a cage. We were surrounded by barbed wire fence and we had no freedom. The food in the camp was no good, but sufficient amounts were provided even under wartime conditions.

The hearings for internees in Bismarck was very one sided. Our opinions and wishes were totally ignored.

After six months in Bismarck, we were transferred by blind window trains again to Roseburg, New Mexico. Speaking in Japanese or in loud tones was prohibited. Internees were ordered to raise their hands for permission to go to the lavatory and we had to line up and wait our turn. None was able to see outside the train.

The camp in Roseburg, New Mexico, was an internment camp and internees had to wear uniforms similar to prison garb and had numbers on their backs. The camp was surrounded by barbed wire fences and the U.S. army patrolled the fence with machine guns mounted in jeeps.

We, the internees, felt that it was very strange since none of us were trying to escape. The government official said that the soldiers were there to protect us internees. In six months, we were again moved to an internment camp in Santa Fe, New Mexico.

After I was in Santa Fe for four months, I was paroled in November of 1943, and I was able to join my family in Camp Minidoka in Idaho. I returned to Seattle in April of 1945. I was prohibited from working outside the Seattle area, so I had to work as a gardener from my home. I was also obliged to report once a week to the Immigration Office the times and places where I had worked.

Four months after returning to Seattle, the war finally ended. I felt like a bird released from its cage. The Nikkei in America had experienced the tragedies of war in quite a different way. My family had its experiences: my father served in both the Sino-Japanese War and the Russo-Japanese War. My mother and family suffered from the wars and tasted of the tragedy of wars. My parents used to talk to us children about the sins of war.

Fortunately, we owned a house in Seattle prior to the war and had that to return to, but there was unpaid rent for one year that we did not receive and food stored in the basement of about $65 was gone. Besides these losses and the losses due to the burning down of the store and warehouse, we figure we lost, in 1941 dollars, about $25,000. There was an additional loss of $3,000 due to cancellation of life insurance. In 1957, under the Property Claim Law of 1948, the government gave us $200.

Even though I was paroled in 1943, I had trouble when I applied for citizenship in 1954. When I appeared in court, the judge questioned my loyalty due to my internment and I had to bring in my attorney to prove my loyalty to the U.S. government. I don't know why only the Nikkei were given such hardship in the United States.

AYAKO UYEDA

My Recollections of WWII.

On December 7, I brought a calculator machine to my home to begin the weekly bookkeeping chores for my store. I was really astonished when a friend phoned to tell me that Pearl Harbor was being attacked by the Japanese and that war had started between the US and Japan. I thought that there must be some explanation why a little country like Japan would fight a giant like the USA.

Prior to the war, we had experienced much discrimination. Japanese were excluded from good jobs because we were not union members and unions would not let us join them. Traditionally, Nikkei wanted to provide better education for their children. We had saved money for our children's education, the top priority despite our low earnings. Our children knew how hard their parents worked and saved for them. And our children did achieve a good education in the universities and colleges, but there were no suitable jobs for them, even if they had graduated at the tops of their classes. We hired two of these college graduates for our store.

Even though the government did not give jobs to these college graduates, they were immediately drafted into the army in 1940 because they were citizens. One of these workers was engaged to be married and he did marry after he was drafted, and the army sent him overseas a week after their honeymoon. I learned later that he was killed in Italy during a landing operation. I felt so sorry for him and his family. I prayed to Buddha that he had peace and that he was sent to heaven.

Soon after the beginning of the war, our Nikkei had to live under terrible fear. Many issei leaders, our friends, were arrested and taken away to the Seattle Immigration Office by the FBI without having done anything wrong. I was worried to death every time a car stopped in front of the house because it might be time for my husband to be arrested.

We had a store in Pike Place Market for over 12 years in 1942, and we had good customers and a good business. On December 14, 1941, someone burned down the store and we lost all that we had worked so hard to have. The fire department said it was arson, but they never found out who did it. There were rumors that the owner of the market had set fire for insurance and also because there were so many Nikkei tenants in the market. We had to rent a new store and take out merchandise from storage. We also had to clean up the burned store in a hurry. We had heavy investments in merchandise and we had to cash out our life insurance to meet the cash needs because of the fire.

Then, we heard that all Nikkei on the West Coast must be moved inland, so we had to sell the new store, too.

I will never forget the day my husband was arrested by the FBI and sent to the Seattle Immigration Office. That was January 29, 1942. Three men came to my home and while one of them watched us, the others searched through

everything in my house. All our letters, documents, records, were taken away. As my husband was being taken away, he was allowed to have $5 for pocket money. Suddenly, I became the responsible person in the family, the sole support for my two children and the household. I pledged to myself that I would do my best to meet this crisis.

We had purchased a house on Lane St. in 1936, and there was a balance owed of $241.18. I paid it off and bought three years of fire insurance. I rented the house to a Mr. McMahon who is caucasian. I had to sell our new Dodge car for an unbelievably low price. Finally, I had to prepare to move to camp. It was very sad to see all Nikkei prohibited from the area of 5th Avenue and the waterfront area, put on a telephone pole (regulations posted).

We were required to have typhoid shots before going to camp. I went downtown to get the shots. It was too strong for me and I had a high fever and my body ached all over. I felt I was going to faint at any moment. Since my husband was gone and the car sold, there was no way to get by car. I carried one child and pulled the other, holding his hand, and we began walking slowly up to 12th Avenue. Suddenly a car stopped. Rev. Ichikawa from the Seattle Buddhist Church gave us a ride. I will never forget his favor. Fortunately, we all got well in a few days.

In the middle of February 1942, we received a letter from my husband who was interned in Bismarck, N.D. It was a great relief to know where he was and that he was all right. I was allowed to correspond with him only once a week and only in English. Due to my lack of fluency in English, I had to get help from a youth to do the letter writing. So, I could only transmit basic information.

Fortunately, my husband taught me how to do the paperwork for our business. I was able to handle things in this emergency situation. I appreciated my husband's foresight in this.

The prohibited area for Nikkei was extended to 7th Avenue by the time we were sent to Puyallup. It deepened my sorrow.

I bought some toys for my children to take to camp. They were of help with other children in the camp.

After three months, we were sent to Hunt, Idaho, for our permanent camp. We had one room. Everybody in camp was required to work. I had to think about my children before choosing work. So, I decided to clean latrines which everybody disliked. But it was all right for me because I could keep my baby with me. I was paid $6 a month for this.

My husband was paroled from the internment camp and joined us on November 25, 1943. Finally we were together. I felt much more secure and found greater strength to go on living.

Beginning in 1944, the government showed interest in releasing Nikkei from the camps. My husband was sent to Seattle to see what the situation was, so I was in Seattle for two days. As we expected, I couldn't locate our tenant, Mr. McMahon. Our furniture, stored in the basement, was badly

damaged by water. Fifteen boxes of canned food were gone. There was eight months of unpaid rent due us. Anyway, we were able to return to Seattle in April 21, 1944. Because we had a home, many of our friends from the camp were able to use our house for a temporary stay. My husband started a gardening business when we got permission for a business phone. We got calls from a bank president, contractors, doctors, etc., who asked us to do gardening work. Many of these people were worried that Nikkei might be hurt by other Americans. They said to let them know immediately if there was any trouble. They said that the war was not a crime that we committed so don't be ashamed or scared of anybody. Because of this type of support, we were able to resettle fairly smoothly. Overall, most people welcomed our return.

Soon after my husband had joined us in Idaho, I asked him what happened in camp. He said that there was an unbelievable amount of data on him collected by the FBI and shown to him at his hearing. I asked myself why the U.S. government had to keep us Nikkei under such surveillance and had collected so much personal data. They must have felt that war between Japan and the U.S. was unavoidable. I hope that our country has learned a lesson from all this and be more understanding and can compromise more to avoid war, and establish a permanent peace.

HANDOUT F

MASS DETENTION CAMPS FOR JAPANESE AMERICANS, 1942-46

	Name	Location	Detainees
1.	Topaz Utah	Millard County Northwest of Delta	8,130
2.	Poston Arizona	Colorado River Indian Reservation South of Parker	17,814
3.	Gila River Arizona	Gila River Indian Reservation West of Sacaton	13,348
4.	Amache Colorado	Prowers County Between Koen and Granada	7,318
5.	Heart Mountain Wyoming	Park County Between Cody and Ralston	10,767
6.	Jerome Arkansas	Chicot and Drew Counties Between Hudspeth and Jerome	8,497
7.	Manzanar California	Inyo County Between Independence and Lone Pine	10,046
8.	Minidoka Idaho	Jerome County North of Eden	9,397
9.	Rohwer Arkansas	Desha County Between Kelso and Rohwer	8,475
10.	Tule Lake California	Modoc County Between Stronghold and Newell	18,789
		TOTAL	112,581

In addition, 26 smaller internment or isolation camps were located in: Alaska, Arizona, California, Hawaii, Idaho, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Montana, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, and Wisconsin.

Source: The National Committee for Redress/Japanese American Citizens League. The Japanese American Incarceration: A Case for Redress (San Francisco: The Japanese American Citizens League, c. 1979)

PART IV GOVERNMENT ACCOUNTABILITY

Objective: To have the students examine the question of government accountability when it has acted in error against its citizens.

Materials: None

Procedures:

1. Open this lesson with a short discussion on the nature of government sovereignty and immunity, close the discussion with the notion that governments are administered by humans which means that it, the government, can commit errors.

2. Have the students recap the errors that were made by the U.S. Government when it interned the Japanese Americans. List these on the chalkboard.

3. On the other side of the chalkboard, ask the students to list other episodes in our history in which the government erred. This list could include:

   . slavery (during pre-civil war days)
   . depriving American Natives of their lands
   . Watergate
   . Teapot Dome Scandal

4. After a number have been identified, have the students discuss what was done to make up for the error by the government.

5. Briefly inform the students of the redress issue that was introduced in the latter 1970s.

6. Close discussion by asking students if they think an act, such as placing innocent people in a group of internment camps, could ever happen again. Have them explain their answer.

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

(The following resources are taken from the Japanese American Curriculum Project catalogue. For ordering and further information, write: **JACP, Inc.,** 414 East Third Avenue, San Mateo, CA 94401)

East to America: A History of the Japanese in the United States, a book by Robert A. Wilson and Bill Hosokawa (Morrow, 1980).

The Japanese Americans: An Inside Look, a filmstrip developed by the Japanese American Curriculum Project under the leadership of Florence Hongo (JACP, Inc.; San Mateo, CA).

Citizens 13660, a book by Mine Okubo (Arno Press, 1979).

Go For Broke, A Pictorial History of the Japanese American 100th Infantry Battalion and the 442nd Regimental Combat Team. (JACP, Inc.)

Manzanar, a 16mm film by Robert Nakamura which depicts a Nisei's memories of boyhood spent in a U.S. concentration camp during World War II (produced by Visual Communications, Los Angeles, CA).

Camp Notes and Other Poems, a book by Mitsuye Yamada (Shameless Hussy Press, 1976).

American Concentration Camps, a book by Allan R. Bosworth (W.W. Norton, 1976).

Japanese Americans and World War II, a pamphlet by Don and Nadine Hata (Forum Press, 1974).

The Japanese American Story, a book by Budd Fukei (Dillon Press, Inc., 1976).

The Japanese in America, a book by Noel Leathers (Lerner Publications, 1967).

Japanese Americans, a book by William Petersen (Random House, 1971).

The Story of the 442nd Combat Team, Information-Education Section, MTSOUA Primary Source Materials.

Concentration Camp U.S.A. Regulations, regulations assigned to evacuees. (JACP, Inc.)

Wartime Hysteria: The Role of the Press in the Evacuation of 110,000 Persons of Japanese Ancestry (JACP, Inc.).

1942 Japanese American Concentration Camp Photos, set of 15 black and white, 11" x 14" photos. (JACP, Inc.)